We have before us the fourth and con cluding volume of The History of Woman Suffrage, edited by SUSAN B. ANTHONY and I A HUSTED HARPER and published by Susan B. Anthony, Rochester, N. Y. The volume covers the period from 1883 to 1900 The three preceding volumes set forth the story of the movement for woman suffrage during the seed-sowing time What i here exhibited is the harvest already reaped and the grounds for the hope that the twentieth century will witness the complete triumph of the movement in all civilized countries. In the space at our disposal it is of course, impossible to give even a summary of the facts collected in up and of 1,100 pages. All that we shall here attempt to do is to condense the evidence for believing that the experiment for woman suffrage has been successful in those States of our Union and in those foreign countries where it has been tried.

The States in which women are already permitted to vote at all elections are Colorado, Idaho, Utah and Wyoming. We sometimes see it asserted that the results of the experiment in these States have been unsatisfactory. In order that the facts might be known, so far as Colorado was concerned, the following statement was signed in 1898 by the Governor, by three ex-Governors, by both United States Senators and both members of Congress, by ex-Senators, by the Chief Justice and two Assoclate Justices of the State Supreme Court. three Judges of the Court of Appeals, four Judges of the District Court, the Secretary of State, the State Treasurer, State Audifor, Attorney-General, the Mayor of Denver, the president of the State University, the president of Colorado College, the representatives of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, the vice-regent of the Mount Vernon Association and the presidents of thirteen women's clubs. The statement sets forth that "We, citizens of the State of Colorado, desfre, as lovers of truth and justice, to give our testimony to the value of equal suffrage. We believe that the greatest good of the home, the State and the nation is advanced through the operation of equal suffrage. The evils predicted have not come to pass.

"The benefits claimed for it have been secured, or are in progress of development A very large proportion of Colorado women have conscientiously accepted their reponsibility as citizens. In 1894 more than half the total vote for Governor was cast by women. Between 85 and 90 per cent. of the women in the State voted at that time. The exact vote of the last election has not yet been estimated, but there is reason to believe that the proportional vote of women was as large as in preyous years. The vote of good women. like that of good men, is involved in the evils resulting from the abuse of our present political system, but the vote of women is noticeably more conscientious than that of men, and will be an important factor in bringing about a better order." There is later and confirmatory test

mony from citizens of the same State to the

same effect. Thus Horace M. Hale, formerly president of the State University. wrote in 1901: "There is not a political party in the State that will ever dare to insert in its platform an anti-suffrage plank: for it must not be forgotten that, upon this question, the voting power of the women would equal that of the men. It is no more likely that the women of Colorado will ever be disfranchised than that the men will In 1902 Irving Hale, Brigadier General, U. S. V., testified that "so far as I have been able to judge by observation of elections and analysis of returns, more women vote in the better districts than in the slums, and the proportion of intelligent and refined voters to the ignorant and depraved is larger among women than among men. The average result, therefore, has been beneficial. We mark, finally, the evidence given in 1902 by Thomas M. Patterson, United States Senator from Colorado: "It was said that equal suffrage would make family discord. In Colorado our divorce laws are rather easy, though stricter than in the neighboring States; but since 1893, when suffrage was granted, I have never heard of a case where political differences were alleged as a cause for divorce, or as the provoking cause of family discord. Equal suffrage in my judgment, breadens the minds of both men and women. It has certainly given us in Colorado candidates of bette character and a higher class of officials It is very true that husband and wife frequently vote alike; as the magnet draws the needle, they go to the polls together. But women are not coerced. If a man were known to coerce his wife's vote, I believe he would be ridden out of town on a rail with a coat of tar and feathers Wamen's legal rights have been improved in Colorado since they obtained the ballot and there are now no civil distinctions Equal suffrage tends to make political affairs better, purer and more desirable for all who take part in them."

We pass to Idaho; where the Chief Justice and all the Judges of the Supreme Court have published an averment to the effect that "woman suffrage in this State is a success; pone of the evils predicted has come to pass, and it has gained much in arity since its adoption by our peo In 1902, when woman suffrage had been in operation in Idaho for over five years. Ralph T. Quarles, Justice of the supreme Court, bore witness "The adoption of equal suffrage has resulted in much good in Idaho. The system is working well, and the heat result therefrom is the selection for public positions, State, county and municipal. Our politics in the past has been manipulated by political adventurers more or less, without regard to the best interests of the people, but principally in the interests of a small coterie of politicians of the different parties who have depended upon the public treasury for subsistence. The participation of our women in the conventions of our various political parties and in elections has a endency to relegate to the background the professional politicians, at least the worst clement, and to bring forth in their stead a better class of people. This tendency is of vast importance to the State. It compels leaders of political parties to be more eareful in the selection of candi dates for different offices of trust and profit.

The editors of this history assure us tha there is no end to the favorable testimon from Utah, given by Mormons and Gentiles alike We reproduce a part of the statement made in 1902 by Gov. Heber M. Wells After pointing out that in some States lawmakers seem to be afraid of enfranchising women, lest politics should exercise teriorating effect upon them, Mr. Wel says that Utah's experience affords no warrant for the apprehension: "For six years women in this State have had the right to vote and hold office. Have the wheels of progress stopped? Instead, we have bounded forward with seven-league Have the fears and predictions of the local opponents of woman's suffrage been verified? Have women degenerated into low politicians, neglecting their homes and stiffing the noblest emotions of woman hood?" These questions are thus answered "The plain facts are that in this State the year. Describing the results of the act,

influence of woman in politics has been distinctly elevating. In the primary in the convention and at the polls her presence has inspired respect for law and order. Experience has shown that women have voted their intelligent convictions. They understand the questions at issue, and they

vote conscientiously and fearlessly. While we do not claim to have the pu politics in the world in Utah, it will be readily conceded that the woman vote is a terror to evildoers, and our course is, therefore, upward and onward." of the current objections to woman suffrage are next dealt with: "One of the bugaboos of the opposition was that women would be compelled to sit on juries. Not a single instance of the kind has happened in the State, for the reason that women are ever summoned. The law simply exempts them, but does not exclude them. Another favorite argument of the anti-suffragists is that if the women vote they ought to be compelled to fight. In Utah the law exempts them from military service." They are no more called upon to fight than are men of non-military age. Especially important is the experience

of Wyoming, because there woman suf-

frage has been operative for a third of a

century. As long ago as 1871 Gov. J. A.

Campbell said in a message to the Territorial Legislature: "There is upon our statute books an 'Act granting to the women of Wyoming Territory the right of suffrage' which has now been in force two years. It is simple justice to say that the women, entering for the first time in the history of the country upon these new and untried duties, have conducted themselves in every respect with as much tact, sound judgment and good sense as men." Eleven years later Gov. Hoyt declared that "under woman suffrage we have better laws, better officers, better institutions, better morals and a higher social condition in general than could otherwise exist. Not one of the predicted evils, such as loss of native delicacy and disturbance of home relations, has followed in its train." Thirteen years later, namely, in 1895, United States Senator C. B. Clark of Wyoming wrote as follows to the Constitutional Convention of Utah, which was considering a woman suffrage plank: "So far as the operation of the law in this State is conperned, we were so well satisfied with twenty years' experience of it under the Territorial government that it went into our State Constitution with but one dissenting vote, although many thought that such a section might result in its rejection by Congress. If woman suffrage does nothing else, it fulfils the theory of a true representative government, and in this State at least has resulted in none of the evils prophesied. It has not been the fruitful source of family disagreements here. It has not lowered wemanhood. Women do generally take advantage of the right to vote, and they vote intelligently. It has been years since we have had trouble at the polls-quiet and order, in my opinion, being due to two causes, the presence of women and our cient election laws. One important feature I might mention, and that is that, in view of the woman vote, no party dare nominate notoriously immoral men, for fear of defeat by that vote. Regarding the adoption of the system in other States, I see no reason why its operation should not be generally the same elsewhere as it is with us. It is surely true that, after many years' experience. Wyoming would not be content to return to the old limits, as, in our judgment, the absence of ill results is conclusive proof of the wisdom of the propositon."

In 1896, H. V. S. Groesbeck, Chief Justice

of the Supreme Court of Wyoming, thus

summed up the results of twenty-seven

years' experience: "Equal suffrage brings

together at the ballot box the enlightened

common sense of American manhood and

the unselfish moral sentiment of American womanhood. Both of these elements govern a well-regulated household and both should sway the political destinies of the we need in this new commonwe home influence at the primaries and at the polls. We believe, with Emerson, that, if all the vices are represented in our politics, some of the virtues should be." in 1902, Justice Corn of the State Suprem Court, made the following public statement with reference to the working of woman suffrage: "Women of all classes vote very generally. Bad women do not obtrude their presence at the polls, and I do not now remember ever to have seen a notoriously bad woman casting her vote. Woman suffrage has no injurious effect upon the home or the family that I have ever heard of during the twelve years I have resided in the State. It does not take so much of women's time as to interfere with their domestic duties, or with their church or charitable work. It does not impair their womanliness, or make them less satisfactory as wives and mothers. They do not have less influence, or enjoy less respect and consideration socially. My impression is that they read the daily papers and inform themselves upon public questions much more generally than do women elsewhere." Justice Corn goes on to say that "woman suffrage has had the effect almost entirely to exclude notoriously bad or immoral men from public office in the State. Political parties refuse to nominate such men upon the avowed ground that they could not obtain the woman vote. The natural result of such conditions is to increase the respect in which women are held, and not to diminish it. They constitute a more important factor in affairs, and, therefore, are more regarded. It is generally conceded, I think, that women have a higher standard of morality and right living than have men. The fact that in Wyoming they have a voice in public matters has a tendency to make men respect their ethical standard, and, in some degree, to attempt to attain it themselves. Justice Corn adds that "I have never been an enthusiastic advocate of woman suffrage as a cure for all the ills that afflict society

sions of it from my observations in this State." We turn next to the Australasian colonies of Great Britain. The first of the British dependencies to grant the Parliamentary franchise to women was New Zealand. In 1801 the Electoral act of this colony conferred the franchise on every person over twenty-one, without distinction of sex, but it did not confer upon women the right to sit in Parliament. Mr. H. J. Seddon, then and now Premier of New Zealand, when in England on the occasion of the Queen's Jubilee, in 1897, spoke of the measure as a great success, saying, "It has come to stay." The Bishop of Aucklani, speaking at the Church Congress held the same year in England, said: "It had led to no harm or inconvenience; but, on the contrary, the men of New Zealand were wondering why they had permitted the women of that colony to remain so long without the right to vote in Parliamentary elections." August, 1894, the Government of South Australia passed a bill giving women full uffrage and the right to sit in the colonial Parliament. The bill became an act by royal ascent in 1896, and the first election under the law took place in the ensuing signed by 11,000 women. The petition

but I give you in entire candor my impres-

Sir John Cockburn said in July, 1886, at the annual meeting of the Central Committee of the Women's Suffrage Society in London: The refining influence of women has made self felt in this sphere as in every other. They have elevate the whole realm of politics, without themselves losing a jot their innate purity. No poorer they, but richer we, y their addition to the elec-toral roll." n West Australia an electoral bill was passed in 1899, the important part of which for women lay in the interpretation clause, which onstrued "elector" to mean any person of either sex whose name should e on the electoral roll of a p ovince or district. Royal assent was given to the bill in 1900. Although women, however, can now vote for members of the West Australia Parliament, they cannot sit in that body In the mother colony of New South Wales bill conferring the Parliamentary franchise on women has passed the Legislative Council. It had already passed the Legislative Assembly and is now law. We ob serve, lastly, that in June, 1902, the Parliament o the Australian Commonwealth passed a bill giving women the right to vote for members of both houses and making them eligible to both bodies. About 800,000 women were thus enfranchised at a stroke Thus we see that in Victoria, Queensland and Tasmania women may now vote for the Federal Parliament but not for the State Legislature, an anomaly which doubtless will very soon be corrected. We may her mention that in the Cape Colony women have a imited vote.

In the Canadian Dominion the woman suffragists have as vet been unsuccessful although as long ago as 1883 Sir Joh Macdonald introduced a bill in the Ottawa House of Commons for amending the electoral law by giving the suffrage to such unmarried women as should possess the necessary qualifications. As a change ha since been made in the Electoral act, mak ing the voters' list for the Dominion coincide with the provincial list, the battle for woman suffrage will henceforth have to be fought out in each separate province. Up to the present time women in Canada have no vote for any lawmaker, either Federal provincial. In the Province of Ontario in 1884 widows and spinsters received the municipal franchise on the same terms men. All women, whether married or single, if owners of property, may vote money by-laws when such are submitted to the electors. Any woman on the essment roll may vote for school trustees and is eligible for that office. In the Province of New Brunswick the Legis lature in 1886 gave, unsolicited, to widows and spinsters the right to vote on the same terms as men at the municipal elections In 1893 an act was passed permitting the appointment of a woman as school trustee This was amended in 1896 making it com pulsory that two members of each school board should be women. In the Province of Nova Scotia the municipal franchis was granted to widows and spinsters A bill giving them the provincial chise was defeated in 1893, and again in 1894 by one vote. An act of 1895 permits all women, if rate payers, to vote on school matters. In 1899 a bill for the full pro vincial franchise was lost by 27 votes. the Province of Prince Edward Island is 1888 the municipal suffrage was conceded to widows and spinsters owning property An act of 1889 made women eligible to ap pointment on the school board. In British Columbia in 1888 the municipal franchise was conferred on widows and spinsters owning property and nine years later on all women rate payers. In Manitoba in 1891 the municipal franchise was extended to women, and any qualified woman rate payer can vote on school questions and is eligible for school offices. In 1892, however, a measure to give women the full pro vincial suffrage was defeated by more than two votes to one. In the Northwest Territories in 1894 the municipal franchis was granted to widows and spinsters, and in school matters every woman rate payer can vote. In the Province of Quebec in entire human family. Particularly do 1892 the municipal franchise was conferred on widows and spinsters upon the same terms as men, but six years later a bill granting them the provincial suffrage

was lost on division. It is well known that the ancient kingdom of the Isle of Man has had an inde pendent government since the time of the Vikings, and makes its own laws, which only the sanction of the Crown Dec. 1880, the Manx Legislature gave the whole suffrage to women propertyowners, and the act received the assen of Queen Victoria in January of the following year. The privilege was extended to all women rate-payers in 1892.

111. We come now to the United Kingdom In 1969 a Municipal Corporations act restored to women rate-payers of England the vote in municipal elections which had been taken away by the [Municipal Corporations act of 1835. In the following year an Elementary Education act for England creating school boards placed women with reference to such boards on a complete eligible for membership. In 1881-82, the Municipal act for Scotland gave to women in that kingdom the same municipal franchise which they had possessed in England since 1869. Scotch women already had the school franchise. The County Electors act (1898) gave women in England equal franchises with men for the election of Councillors for the County Councils created by the Local Government act of that year. The Local Government act of 1894, which reorganized the parochial poor-law administration in the English counties, confirmed the rights of women to all loca franchises, and made them eligible, not only as Poor-law Guardians, but also as Parish and District Councillors. In 1896. the Poor-law Guardian act for Ireland made women in that kingdom for the first time eligible as Poor-law guardians. Two years later the Irish Local Government act reorganized the system of local government in Ireland on similar lines to those which had been followed in England. Women who hitherto had been excluded from the municipal franchise, now had all local franchises conferred on them, and were made eligible for rural and urban District Councils. The first sign of reaction was observed in 1899, when the London Government act changed the system of Vestries to that of Borough Councils throughout the Metropolitan District. men had been eligible on the old Vestries and several were then serving. Their claim to sit on the new Borough Councils was, however, rejected. The advocates women suffrage believe that the full Parliamentary franchise will be granted to women in the United Kingdom before the twentieth century is far advanced. The fact is to be noted that the present House of Commons includes 267 members who have voted in former Parliaments on

the question; of these, 96 are opponents

while 171 are supporters. The editors of

the work before us are convinced that the

march of time is strengthening the ranks

of the woman suffragists in the House of

Commons. They point out that the first

petition for woman suffrage presented to

Parliament in 1867 was signed by only

1,499 women. The petition of 1873 was

presented to the members of the last Par-

nt was signed by 257,796 women. is well known that a woman suffrage bill ictually passed a second reading in the House of Commons during the session of 1898-99, but was subsequently lost by what the London Times described as an dignified shuffle." We conclude our notice of this interest-

ing work with a glance at a chapter which reviews the progress made by the woman suffrage movement on the continent of Europe. The Constitution of the German Empire says that "every German above 25 years of age shall have the Parliamentary frapchise." but, as a matter of fact, no woman has ever been permitted to vote under it. The different States which compose the empire have constitutions of their own. By the wording of some of them it would seem that women landed proprietors are undoubtedly entitled to take elections. The Prussian code declares that the rights of the two sexes are equal if no special laws make an exception, and it gives the Parliamentary franchise to every one who possesses the county or burgess suffrage. The by-laws, however, which prescribe the qualifications for the latter franchise, exclude in some instances women, and in others declare that women landowners may act as electors, but only through a proctor (proxy). Teachers, undoubtedly being State officials, are entitled to take part in local governments. It must be admitted, however, that in Prussia neither the Government nor public sentiment looks with favor on woman electors In Saxony women proprietors of landed estates, whether married or single, are entitled to a municipal vote, but this can be exercised only by proxy.

The Italian Electoral law of 1870 gave a widow the right to vote by proxy at Parliamentary elections. In the Cisleithan half of the Hapsburg realm, since 1862 women holding property have had a proxy vote in municipal and provincial elections and for members of the lower house of Parliament. The privilege, however, is subject to many restrictions. In Bohemis since 1873 women who are large landed proprietors have a proxy vote for members both of the Cisleithan Parliament and of the Provincial Diet. In France since 1893 unmarried women engaged in trade, in cluding market women, have possessed the right to vote for Judges of the Tribunals of Commerce. In Sweden, women have voted in Church matters since 1736, and in 1862 it was provided that wome who are rate-payers may vote, directly or by proxy, as they choose, for all officers, except members of Parliament. Indirectly women have a voice in the election of the First Chamber, or House of Lords, as they vote for the County Councils, which elect certain members of this body. They have the school and the municipal suffrage, and the right to vote for members of the provincial assemblies. In Norway, since 1989 women who have children may vote in towns for school inspectors, and be eligible to the school boards. In rural communes, they are eligible as inspectors, and women who pay a school tax may vote on all school questions and for school officers, while those who pay no tax and have children may vote on all question involving expenditure. In 1901 municipal suffrage was granted to all women who paid taxes on an income of 300 crowns (\$71) in country districts, and 400 crowns in cities. If husband and wife together pay taxes on the last-named amount, both may vote. About 200,000 women thus became 'electors. In Denmark, women have no franchise, but there is reason to believe that the municipal suffrage will soon be granted to them. In Holland, not only is there no form of woman suffrage. but the Constitution of 1887 expressly prohibits it. Switzerland also allows no man to vote on any question, or for the election of any officer

We have here shown what has been as complished and what remains to do. If we have laid particular stress on the working of women suffrage in four of the United States, it is because in the actual outcome of the experiment will be found the strongest arguments for a wide extension the movement during the next decade.

The Prevention of Disease

There is no doubt that the Funk & Wagnalls company have rendered a public service by publishing in two volumes an English translation of a comprehensive treatise on The Prevention of Disease. To indicate the scope and value of the work it may be well to name some of the German specialists whose contributions are here brought together. The initial article, by Dr. S. Goldschmidt of Bad Reichenhall is devoted to the history of the prevention of disease. Then follows a discussion of general prophylaxis by Prof. Martins of Rostock. Dr. Rosen is the author of chapters on diseases of the blood and diseases of metabolism, while Dr. Richard Rosen considers infectious diseases and diseases of the lungs. Prof. Martin Mendelsohn equality with men, both as electors and as of Berlin discourses on diseases of the heart, and the exposition of diseases of the digestive organs is from the pen of Dr. Max Einhorn, professor in the New York Post-Graduate Medical School. The chapters on diseases of women and midwifery are written by Dr. O. Schaeffer of the University of Heidelberg, and for the chapter on diseases of children the editors of the treatise have had recourse to Dr. Fischl, lecturer in the German University of Prague Prof. Köningshöfer of Stuttgart discusse diseases of the eye; Dr. T. S. Flatau of Berlin diseases of the throat and nose; Dr. A. von Notthafft of Munich and Dr Kollmann of Leipzig diseases of the urinary and male generative organs, and Dr. Max Joseph of Berlin venereal eases and diseases of the skin. Our list but it will suffice to show how wide is the

of the subjects treated is not exhaustive ground covered. In an introduction intended for English and American readers, Dr H. Timbrell Bulstrode, a member of the British Local Government Board, points out that the term "preventive medicine" is generally employed in the United Kingdom and the United States in too restrictive a sense. Although preventive medicine might reasonably be thought of as dealing with infectious diseases in general, the term is usually confined among English-speaking peoples to a few only of such maladies When, for instance, we have mentioned smallpox, scarlet, typhus and enteric fevers, diphtheria and certain exotic diseases, such as plague, cholera and yellow fever, we have gone far to exhaust the group of maladies with which preventive medicine in England and the United States is wont to concern itself. Professedly, indeed, to a small extent, diseases such as measles, chickenpox, erysipelas and puerperal fever are regarded as within the phere of infuence of preventive med cine, but it can not be said that hitherto any systematic attempts have been made to curtail their operation. Nor is it until quite recently that pulmonary tuberculosis, hough it has now for many years been regarded as communicable, has been added to the diseases concerning which many sanitary authorities are taking action. Dr. Buistrode also notes that British

and American professional opinion does

not warrant the distinction drawn by Prof. Martins in this volume between hygiene, or public health, and personal, or individual, prophylaxis. Prof. Martins holds that there is an antagonism of principle be-tween these two things, for he says: "Indeed, it cannot be denied that there is a great gulf, a dreadful contradiction, beween the aims of the hygiene of the individual and the hygiene of the race. hygiene as applied to individuals ysician strives to improve the life even the most wretched human being, and s efforts are the greater the more feeble s the individual; but the hygiene of the race has for its ultimate aim pitilessly to eliminate persons of weakly constitutions, and thus to improve the people as a whole." There is no doubt that Prof. Martins is here expressing a broader conception of preventive medicine than is understood by the term in Great Britain or the United States. So far as these countries are concerned, it is not a quesion which, as yet, calls for practical consideration, whether or no the perpetua tion, and consequent opportunity for propagation, of the physically unfit is a wise measure from an evolutionary view-

sum total of medical counsel and intended to protect the individual human being against disease. In this sense modcal prophylaxis guides the individual through the entire course of life from the eradle to the grave." Dr. Rosen defines he goal of individual prophylaxis when ne says: "The physician ought not to wait intil he discovers an impaired note at the apex of the lung, or hears rales, or ill the discovery of tubercle bacilli with the microscope makes the suspected diignosis of tuberculosis a certainty, before e begins to treat the patient hygienically and dietetically." Prof. Martins expresses he same idea when he says that "to bring ip a weakly child who may be hereditarily tainted so that it shall not succumb to he threatening danger of tuberculous fection is individual medical prophylaxis." Again, Prof. Mendelsohn of in, who, as we have said, contributes a chapter on the prevention of diseases of he heart, insists that "a truly scientific prophylaxis of heart disease can only be carried out by the physician who makes functional diagnosis, not an anatomical one. It is not enough merely to auscultate and percuss and, because nothing abnormal has been detected by this proedure, to conclude that special prophy actic measures are unnecessary.

By individual medical prophylaxis is meant, according to Prof. Martins, "the

"Even when there is no organic abnornality present in the heart its condition and functional capacity should be determined n every possible position of the body when sitting, when standing, when lying at rest, and after different degrees of bodily exertion." Finally, as Dr. Windscheid puts it, while against old age there is no prophylaxis, we can, by well-regulated preventive action, postpone the death which

eems the inevitable penalty of birth. Singularly interesting will be found Dr. doldschmidt's review of the history of the revention of diseases. It is known, for nstance, that the ancient Egyptians regarded cleanliness in the light of a divine commandment, that they had regulations bout food, the enforcement of which was ntrusted to the priests, and that they endeavored to exclude epidemic disease y quarantine. The prophylactic laws. which in Egypt were intended only for the priesthood, were made binding upon all he Israelite people by Moses, the pupil of Egyptian priests. It is remarkable how severely in the Mosaic law any breach of hygienic regulations is dealt with. To reak the rules of health was looked upon among the Israelites as a falling away from God, as a sin, the direct consequence of which was punishment at God's hands The Mosaic announcement that "thy sins shall be visited unto the third and fourth generations" does not conform to our sense of justice, but it expresses what caremedical sine. The fact that, although the Jews are no longer a nation, and never porsessed a national life for more than five hundred years, the Jewish race still exists, is attributed by Dr. Goldschmidt n no small measure to the scrupulous way which they have conformed to the Bibical laws of hygiene. The best known of hese hygienic laws refer to food. Here, no loubt, correct observation is mixed up with uperstitious ideas. The Israelite law. or in tance, that the blood of slaughtered nimals shall be drained away rests upon he superstitious idea that life has its origin n the blood, or that the spirit dwells in the plood. Hence the rule that no part of an animal's body may be used for food until all the blood has been removed by salt and water.

In spite of the superstitious origin of

good for the preservation of the mest. nd meat deprived of its blood is far less apt to decompose than meat which still ontains blood. The law that the flesh of a slaughtered animal should not be eaten ater than the third day, and, if not then eaten, must be burnt, seems a sensible egulation in countries where putrefaction ets in early and proceeds rapidly. Again, he Mosaic prohibitions extend to the eating of those animals which experience has aught may cause disease, such as the lesh of swine, of cats and of certain odents which Luther translated "rabbits," which probably are rats. Recent research has shown that the last-named animals re apt to harbor trichine, for which reason Virchow pronounces Moses one of the reatest physicians known to history. nimals leading a free life, such as beasts of prey or objects of the chase, may not e used for food, partly to discourage the love of hunting, which the Bible regards as a cruel sport, partly because it is impossible to control the food of such animals, and they sometimes eat things which may e harmful to men. Humane feelings are selieved to have prompted the prohibition of the eating of the flesh of certain domestic animals. Only upon this hypothesis can we explain why Israelites were forbidden o eat the flesh of horses, asses, mules and camels. These animals are so useful to men that to employ them for food was revolting to the feelings of the Biblical awgivers. As for circumcision, it was practised by many ancient races, as, for nstance, by the Arabs long before the ime of Mohammed. Dr. Goldschmidt hinks that the sanitary value of the operation ought not to be underrated. Besides he hygienic laws just mentioned, the Mosaic awgiver issued other regulations which cannot be improved upon at the present day. Thus be gave orders about the locaion of privies: these were to be outside an encampment, and the refuse was to be overed with earth. Exemplary regulaions, also, were haid down concerning the intercourse of husband and wife, and about rest on the Sabbath. For leprosy mode prophylaxis can add nothing to the Biblical regulations. A leper had to live outside be camp, and must not frequent public places. In the Talmud, no doubt, there are some abourd rules, but, on the whole, Dr. Goldschmidt holds that the endeavor

the fundamental principles of health chal lenges the admiration of scientific men.
Turning to the Hindoos, we note that they practised inoculation against smallpox ong before the preventive was known Europeans. They also had a sensible

regulation which forbade anybody going out in the rain unprotected. There are also vise rules about washing. These, however, are the only prescriptions of any scientific medical interest which Dr. Goldschmidt has been able to find among the Hindoos. Passing to the Chinese, we observe that the market regulations introduced by Confucius form a collection of recommenda tions rather than sanitary rules. They include warnings against the produce of the fields when it is not in season, against fruit which is not ripe, and against birds game and fish which have not been killed according to directions. Further, raw food materials alone must be offered for sale, apparently because tainted flesh might be disguised by cooking. A better understanding of hygiene is evinced in the teaching that food must vary according to the individual's age, and that an old man may take many kinds of food which are for bidden to a young man. The injurious effects of alcohol, when drunk in excess seem to have been known long ago to the Chinese. In order that drinking might be reduced to the most moderate quantities the ancient Emperors ordered the intoxi cating beverage made from rice to be drunk only from very small glasses, and further decreed that one hundred obeisances should be made before drinking a second glass Thus a small quantity of alcohol would take a long time to consume. The modern Chinese do not scruple to use rats and snakes as food; nevertheless, the market regulations warn them that the tail of a chicken, when narrow and full, should no be eaten, nor the flesh near the tail of the wild goose. Again, the meat on the ribs of swans and owls is pronounced unsafe, and so is the liver of the fowl and the stomach of the wild goose and swine On the whole, the Chinese have not contributed much more than have the Hindoos to the advancement of prophylaxis. We need not dwell upon the recognition of the importance of cleanliness proved by

the public baths which were to be found

barians were almost universally neglected

So far as Western Europe is concerned, i was only in Spain, where the Moors maintained themselves so long, that luxurious baths were erected for the sake of permitting believers in Islam to obey the injunction to bathe frequently. As regards the removal of refuse, Babylon, Carthage and Egypt are said to have had systems of drainage; and Jerusalem in the Herodian period is reputed to have had an apparatus by which waste water was conveyed into special reservoirs. Here the impurities were allowed to settle to the bottom, and the water in the reservoir being then allowed to run off, the sediment was used for manure. Even to the present day the cloacs maxims in Rome, constructed by larquinius Priscus, is still in use. As early as the time of Augustus it was noticed that fluctuations of the Tiber caused a backward flow of the débris, in cor of which the Emperor ordered that the drains should be regularly flushed. During the Middle Ages very little was done to keep the Eternal City systematically lean. The oldest structure which exists in Germany for urban drainage is that of Bunzieu, which was regularly flushed as long ago as 1850. There are still older drains in England, but even there the polluted water was conveyed into the nearest stream. Not until 1850 were systematic attempts made in England to do away with the evil resulting from this practice. By means of an intercepting sewer the sewage was conveyed to an outfall below London, where it was allowed to escape only on the ebbing of the tide into the Thames. this measure proved inadequate, the sewage was subjected to a process of precipitation before being permitted to escape. gan to build drains in the fifties of the nineteenth century. Danzig was the first German town, however, to have at the same time a drainage system, a water supply system and an irrigation system. Berlin since 1875 has organized one of the largest apparatuses for drainage in ex-

The methods employed in ancient times for the disposal of the dead do not evince any very clear conception of prophylaxis. In Greece and heathen Rome the dead were burned, but the Israelites buried corpses in the earth at a depth prescribed by their laws. The European nations which succeeded the Roman Empire in the West seem not to have had any strict regulations about burial until comparatively late times Not even coffins were in general use, and no rules were enforced regarding the depth of graves The churchyard belonged rather to ecclesiastical authorities than to the community, and was always placed

he custom, it is a valuable preventive egulation in hot countries. Salt, of course, near the church. We pass to Dr. Goldschmidt's historical account of the prevention of epidemic diseases. As we have said, inoculation against smallpox has been practised in China and India from time immemorial. In Denmark, in various districts of France and in South Wales inoculation against smallpox seems to have been known before Jenner introduced vaccination. An English physician, Sulten, tried to improve the method of inoculation by taking the lymph from the pustules of patients suffering from mild smallpox and conveying t to the arms of young children by the lancet point. There is no doubt that he minimized the danger of the operation. Of 17,000 children inoculated by Sulten up to the year 1767, only six or seven died from the inoculation. So brilliant were the results attained by him that some physicians believed smallpox to have disappeared altogether in England. It is well known that Edward Jenner was led to the discovery of vaccination by the casus remark of a countrywoman to the effect that milkmaids were immune to smallpox infection if they had been accidentally innoculated with cowpox while handling the udders of cows in milking.

> One of the diseases against which prophylactic measures have long been aken is malaria. The opinion that this malady is contracted by merely breathing the air of malarial districts is now known to be incorrect, Koch and others having shown that malaria is conveyed largely, if not entirely, through the instrumentality of certain mosquitoes. Although this fac had not been discovered in earlier times it had been observed that malaria was confined to marshy districts, and many of the ancient civilized races endeavored to drain marshy ground, with the view of

to drain marshy ground, with the view of rendering it healthy.

The most memorable example of such attempts is supplied by the Pontine Marshes. The large plain bearing this name, which lies to the southeast of Rome, was once one of the most flourishing parts of Italy. It is said that thirty-three towns stood there in the first half of the fourth century B. C., when the Volscians were still independent. In the year 358 B. C. the Volscians, having been defeated by the Romans in several sanguinary battles, were carried away from their homes and scattered. Thenceforth the drainage works were neglected, the house of the towns fell in, and the district became one of the most malarious in Europe. The Romans tried to restore this region to its former healthful of the authors of that work to lay down

condition, and as early as the year 312 B.C. an ineffectual effort was made to provide the Via Appla with a drainage system. The experiment was renewed at various times under the republic and the empire, but was never carried out. Eighteen but was represented the attempt, but always the attempt bu Popes repeated the attempt, but always with insufficient money and inadequate technical means. Finally, under Pius VI. part of the devastated plain was restore

cultivation, but the greater part of it is still unfit for human habitation.

In the article on the prevention of pulmonary tuberculosis, the author, Dr. Richard Rosen, points out that the opinion formerly held that tuberculous infection may be directly inherited is incorrect. An inof the child by germs in the spermaozoa or ovum does not occur. Direct mother has tubercular disease is possible, but is extremely rare. Only a predisposi-tion to tuberculosis may be inherited; this consists not only in the configuration of the thorax, but also in the degree of the functional activity of the organs, and in such a conformation of the body as makes it a suitable nidus for the bacilli By whatever words this kind of predisposition

whatever words this kind of predisposition may be expressed, it remains true that the nature of hereditary predisposition is still imperfectly understood, and cannot as yet be referred to any obvious lesion.

The term "general weakness" has been used to designate it, but if by this term be meant a general weakness of the muscular system and a decrease of the functional activity of the body, it does not cover all cases of hereditary predisposition, because some individuals who are muscularly strong and active are affected with larly strong and active are affected with tuberculosis. A predisposition to tuber-culosis is left by several other diseases, apparently because the constitution of the lymph and of the blood after these illnesses favors the implantation of the tubercle bacillus. Those suffering from diabetes are especially prone to develop tubercu-losis; the growth of the bacilli in the hu-man body seems to be favored by an exessive amount of sugar in the blood. cessive amount of sugar in the blood. In children pulmonary tuberculosis often follows measles and whooping cough; consequently, during and after these illnesses special care should be taken to guard such children against tuberculous infection.

The question whether tuberculous patients ought to marry is considered by Dr. Richard Rosen without any regard to the offspring of the marriage. He con-

the offspring of the marriage. He con fines himself to the inquiry whether a tu fines himself to the inquiry whether a tuberculous person should marry a healthy
one. He holds that if the disease has
existed for a long time and is progressing
marriage should be absolutely prohibited.
In the initial stage of pulmonary tuberculosis, on the other hand, he thinks that
no general rule can be laid down. A patient who has had no pulmonary signs
of the disease for two years, and is in
a good state of nutrition, may be allowed
to marry, but a physician should be more over the Roman Empire, but for centuries after the irruption of the barto marry, but a physician should be more scrupulous about granting consent to marriage to a tuberculous woman than culous man, because experience

to a tuberculous man, because experience has shown that pregnancy and parturition often cause very rapid aggravation of the disease. There is no doubt that infection through marriage is possible.

In an interesting chapter on diseases of the digestive organs, by Prof. Einhorn, will be found a paragraph on appendicitis. Here we are reminded that formerly the swallowing of fruit stones, pieces of bone and fragments of indigestible food were forbidden, but we now know that these things play no part whatever in the proforbidden, but we now know that these things play no part whatever in the production of appendicitis. Regulation of the bowels and removal of constipation were also looked upon as important prophylactic measures, but recent investigations have shown that even this assumption is unfounded. No doubt regulation of the bowels is important; in severe chronic constipation intestinal obstruction may result from the occlusion of the lumen of only means, however, that we possess appendix. Prof. Einhorn do of the apper commend a resort to this expe all cases, because the operation is not quite free from danger, but it may always be undertaken when a laparotomy is necessary for some other reason, and when

does not take too long.

In the same chapter Prof. Einhorn has In the same chapter Prof. Einhorn has something to say about stimulants. He expresses the opinion that tea and coffee, when taken in moderation, are not followed by any bad effects, but are useful. It is well, he thinks, to add sugar and milk to the tea or coffee, and thus make the beverage a food. Total abstinence from alcoholic drinks is pronounced unnecessary, and, indeed, in many respects, disadvantageous. In advanced age and in most conditions of exhaustion alcoholic liquids are pronounced valuable aids for most conditions of exhaustion alcoholic liquids are pronounced valuable aids for strengthening the body. Of course, for prophylactic purposes these beverages hould be taken only in mo much tobacco one may smoke without bad results Prof. Einhorn does not find it easy to determine. Very much depends on individual peculiarities. He is aware that many men smoke continually, and yet reach old age without experiencing any ill effects from their use of tobacco. Others, again, from their use of tobacco. Others, again, suffer from tobacco poisoning if they smoke two or three light cigars a day. Smokers are advised to smoke only at certain hours, and especially after meals. The American custom of chewing tobacco is denounced on the ground that the nicotine is in this way quickly absorbed, and therefore, symptoms of tobacco poisoning are apt to appear earlier than after smoking. A reference to disabetes will be found in the chapter on diseases of the urinary organs. As the essential cause of diabetes is as yet unknown, we can only try to prevent organs. As the essential cause of disorder is as yet unknown, we can only try to prevent the disease by avoiding those things which, as experience has shown, often lead to this particular malady. Among these, attention is directed to the excessive ingestion tention is directed to the excessive ingestion of sugar and of substances which contain sugar. Moreover, as diabetes shows a strong tendency to be hereditary, it is well not to give to the children of diabetics too much carbo-hydrate food, and to make an examination for sugar at regular intervals after the ingestion of amylaceous food. When diabetes is present the chief aims of prophylaxis must be to maintain the nutrition and to prevent coma. The chief thing in the dieting prescribed is the restriction of the carbo-hydrates, yet we must beware of excluding these altogether from the diet in mild cases. No diabetic in any stage of the disease should take large quantities of sugar or starch. The aim of the diabetic diet is furthered by regular, moderate muscular exercise and by proper care of the skin (baths). There is, it seems, in diabetics a tendency to attacks of perspiration and to taking cold tacks of perspiration and to taking cold afterward, wherefore it is best for the patient always to wear warm, woollen clothes, and in cold weather to go to a warmer climate. The danger of coma warmer climate. setting in must be prevented by promoting diuresis with alkaline waters, the administration of alkalies in large quantities (8 to 10 drams of a sodium blearbonate a day). with a strictly nitrogenous diet. Owing to the danger of coms. and of the serious course which wounds run, surgical operations should be made on diabetic patients.

tions should be made on diabetic patients only after the sugar has been removed as much as possible.

We observe, finally, that, in the chapter on diseases of the eye, contributed by Prof. Königshöfer of Stuttgart, some general rules are given for the prevention of myopia in early life. We are told, for example, that attendance at school should not begin in early life. We are told, for example, that attendance at school should not begin till the child is 7 years old. In the first year of school life instruction should not exceed sixteen to eighteen hours a week, and should be divided into periods of not more than two hours. Between the two hours of any one period there should be a rest of a quarrer of an hour. In giving instruction, a distinction should be drawn between near work (reading, drawing and writing) and other work. Seer, work writing) and other work. Near work must never continue for more than half an hour at a time. The number of hours may be gradually increased during subsequent school years, but there should always be a quarter of an hour's interval at the end every hour, half an hour's interval at of every hour, half an hour's interval at the end of every two hours and a regular alternation between near work and other work. Never, not even in the highest class should the number of school hours exceed should the number of school hours exceed the number of school hours because of school hours are number of school hours. thirty-two per week, and the number of hours of home work, fourteen, that is to say, a weekly total of forty-six hours must not be exceeded. These rules, it seems, are enjoined with especial st ness upon persons who show a tende to become myopic, or already are or less afflicted with myopia. We that myopia seems to be inherited. that myopia seems to be inherited, a therefore, the children of short-sight therefore, the children of short-signed parents should be subjected to rigorous hygienic prophylaxis, even before show any signs of short sight.

WOMEN THEWOR

If a Man Sex Is Rule-T frage

When a m incomp his own futu fails she in men, because not be brand secure a simi man has pro splendidly ed to men's can Although of worthy of co past and profaithfulness with women. but everywh are on trial watched, m They are to a share in the public, lo

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